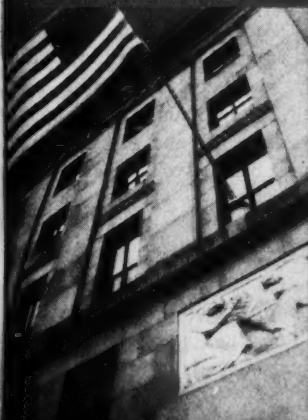




CONSUMERS' GUIDE

JUNE 6 AND 20, 1938



CONSUMERS' GUIDE

JUNE 6 AND 20, 1938, VOLUME V, NUMBER 5

A Publication of the

Agricultural Adjustment Administration
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D. E. MONTGOMERY, Consumers' Counsel

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Address all inquiries to the Editor, Consumers' Guide
U. S. Department of Agriculture . . . Washington, D. C.
MARY TAYLOR, Editor

THERE are no sheepskins to mark the graduation of consumers from childhood to maturity. If we were handing one out it would go to the consumer who speaks up in meetin'. Speaking up takes some training and study, perhaps, but more importantly it takes a realization that where two or more people are gathered to determine how much goods will come to market, how much consumers are going to pay for those goods, and what quality they will have, there consumers should be heard. Achieving such a conviction is a process of education. Acting on it is a mark of maturity.

Increasingly industry and government are providing opportunities for outspoken consumers. Many of these chances for hearing go by default.

Here's a chance to watch. The Bureau of Agricultural Economics is now in process of organizing conferences for the purpose of securing information on how to revise its quality standards for U. S. graded eggs. For some time past, the retail egg grading work of this Bureau has been on the basis of tentative standards. The time has now come to consider revising these present standards and grades, to "true them up" as experience shows desirable.

As a first step, the Bureau is holding a number of small informal confer-

ences. To these conferences have been bid farmers, dealers, graders, research people, in fact everybody—including consumers—who has any interest in or knowledge of the quality grading of eggs. For consumer spokesmen, the Bureau appealed to the Consumers' Counsel Division. Too late for announcement in the *Consumers' Guide*, news of these meetings was dispatched by letter to consumer groups in Philadelphia, New York, Boston, Chicago, Des Moines, St. Louis, Salt Lake City, Seattle, and San Francisco.

By now informal conferences are over. But not the last chance for consumers to be heard. Sometime in the coming fall and winter, larger and more widely attended conferences on the same problem will be held at different places throughout the country. Not until after all these sessions take place will the experts in egg grading in the Bureau of Agricultural Economics closet themselves with the testimony and emerge with recommended changes to be made official by promulgation by the Secretary of Agriculture.

Our tip, then, to consumers is this: Watch the *Consumers' Guide* for announcement of the forthcoming sessions. If you think there is a chance that you might miss this notice, send

us your name so that we can notify you direct by letter. This is your chance to be heard on a producer-dealer-consumer interest that will affect your pocketbook on its trips to market for this essential food.

Grade specifications are, it is true, highly technical matters. Trained and experienced producers and dealers are one up on the consumer unskilled in the technicalities involved in defining desirable grades. But that is not the whole problem of definition.

Top grade now is "U. S. Special," next is "U. S. Extra" or "Retail Grade A." And so on. There's a non-technical question for consumers to decide regarding the identification these government grades should carry. Would a straight "Grade A," "Grade B," and so on, be a more usable tag than present names? Go to the hearings and learn what arguments there are against such tags. Should "Grade A" be given to the topmost quality eggs, few of which reach retail markets, or should the top tag go to the best eggs sold in quantity on markets? What, then, should the special few be labeled? As marketings go now, "U. S. Special" Eggs form only about 5 percent of the entire retail egg production. The next lower grade, "U. S. Extra" or "Retail Grade A" is just about the best the average consumer can buy, and is a standard met by over 25 percent of all graded eggs. Should these two grades be combined in one?

Consumers have a practical answer to offer to such questions as these. But mutterings at home won't make any difference in the final decisions. There has to be speaking up in meetin'.

WITH THIS ISSUE, we commence a new summer schedule. During June, July, and August, one issue a month only will appear. The 2 issues which normally would appear in June are combined in this number. The next 2 will be dated July and August. We will resume our bi-weekly release date in September.

OUR THANKS go to Edward Steichen, photographer, for the medley of children and sunshine on the cover of this issue.



Another Milestone of Consumer Protection

New powers of the Federal Trade Commission place heavy responsibilities on Government in the regulation of advertising of consumer products

A QUARTER of a century ago Congress created the Federal Trade Commission, to "prevent unfair methods of competition in commerce." Misrepresentation of goods is one of the "unfair methods" the FTC has sought to curb, under this general mandate. Some 70 percent of the cases which come before the FTC involve advertising.

On March 21, 1938 the President signed the Wheeler-Lea Act, broadening the powers of the FTC to deal with all types of unfair commercial prac-

tices, and giving it new powers to control false advertising. Because this is the first major revision of the Federal Trade Commission Act since its passage in 1914, it is worth examining the new powers and duties of the FTC.

The Wheeler-Lea Act extends the powers of the Commission in 3 directions: Directs the FTC to prevent business practices injurious to consumers as well as those damaging to business competitors. Second, it makes orders of the Commission more effective. Third, it gives the Commission spe-

cific powers to prevent false advertising of foods, drugs, cosmetics, and healing devices.

● **FIRST CHANGE** is to outlaw "unfair or deceptive acts or practices in commerce" which hurt consumers, as well as those which damage trade competitors. The 1914 law told the Commission to prevent "unfair methods of competition in commerce." Whatever the meaning of this broad mandate to the Congress which debated the Federal Trade Commission Act



ADVERTISING over the air, as well as in newspapers and magazines, calls for Federal Trade Commission vigilance. Last year expenditures by advertisers for radio time (not including fees to talent) over 3 major national hookups totaled 69 million dollars.

through the hot summer months of 1914, the courts tended to limit the Commission's powers by emphasizing the "competition" rather than the "unfair methods." Injury to consumers, the Supreme Court said in 1931 in the famous *Raladam* case, could only be used "as evidence of the primarily vital fact, injury to the lawful dealer."

That people who used the fat-reducing preparation in question had suffered in health did not make this a case for the FTC, said the Court; it was essential to demonstrate that some legitimate maker of a competing obesity cure had suffered a loss of trade. Failing to establish that there were any legitimate competitors in this business, although proving to the Supreme Court's satisfaction that the public was injured, the FTC had its case against the *Raladam* company thrown out of court.

Competitors' loss of trade can usually be shown to follow from consumers' deception. But it has taken a great deal of the Government's time and money to establish in court the fact of injury to competitors of an unfair concern. The Wheeler-Lea Act, by clarifying the language of the statute, allows the Commission to proceed

straight to the question of unfair and deceptive acts and practices.

● **SECOND CHANGE** in the law makes FTC orders more effective, which should lead to more general compliance with such orders. Hitherto the ineffectiveness of the Commission's orders has been cited as a weakness in its maintenance of fair business practices.

Here is the way the Commission has worked. Charges of unfair methods of competition may come from the public or, more usually, from aggrieved competitors, or from trade associations. Investigation by the FTC staff leads to one of 3 results. The charges may be dropped for lack of evidence or for lack of jurisdiction by the Commission. A stipulation may be negotiated with the offending concern. Or the Commission may issue a complaint.

A stipulation is a promise by the concern to discontinue the unlawful practices. There is no penalty for violation. If a concern fails to live up to the promise, the third procedure, that of a Commission complaint, must be invoked.

A complaint which is contested involves the taking of evidence before an FTC trial examiner, briefs and final argument before the Commission. After this the FTC may either dismiss the charges or order the firm "to cease and desist from its unfair methods."

Refusal to obey a cease and desist order, however, has until now carried no penalty. For enforcement, the FTC has had to apply to a United States Circuit Court of Appeals, which, after hearing both parties, might affirm the Commission's order and direct that it be obeyed. Continuation of the offense beyond that made the offender guilty of contempt of court, which might be punished by fine or imprisonment.

● **THE NEW ACT** puts teeth into the Commission's cease and desist orders. Violation of an order when it has become final will be punishable by a fine of up to \$5,000. Cease and desist orders will automatically become final 60 days after the Commission hands them down, unless during that period the concern appeals to a Circuit Court of Appeals for review of the case.

Third major change in the FTC Act gives the Commission specific jurisdiction over false advertising of food, drugs, therapeutic or healing devices, and cosmetics. Protection of consumers against misbranding and adulteration of food and drugs has since 1906 been within the province of the Federal Food and Drug Administration. One of its duties is to see that no falsely labeled or adulterated food or drug products are shipped across State lines. The Food and Drug Administration, however, has no control whatsoever over advertising of foods and drugs. The FTC, under the Wheeler-Lea Act, acquires that jurisdiction.

The Food and Drug Administration has never had any authority over cosmetics, depilatories, hair dyes and hair tonics, remedies for obesity and for leanness, devices to treat bodily abnormalities which are not classed as diseases, and curative devices of all sorts, from sun lamps to orthopedic shoes.

Attempts to curb false advertising of these and other commodities have been made by the Federal Trade Com-

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mission since its organization. The Commission at first handled false and misleading advertising in the same manner as other "unfair methods of competition in commerce." In 1929 the Commission declared that "misrepresentation embodied in false and misleading advertising in the periodical field was of such volume that it should receive specialized attention," and set up a Special Board of Investigation to deal with it as far as possible. In 1934 radio advertising was added to the Board's field of activity.

This Board consists of 3 attorneys; its staff numbers about 40 people. Clerks go through newspaper ads and

radio scripts for a preliminary check, marking questionable ads. The number of these is narrowed down by a group of attorneys at the second level of inspection. Finally, the most suspicious ads go to the Board members for decision as to action.

Last year the Board and its staff read 137,000 advertisements in 216 newspapers and 677 magazines; and 470,000 radio continuities amounting to a million typewritten pages.

A first reading indicated 23,000 periodical advertisements representing 2,300 advertisers, and 25,000 radio ads by 1,275 advertisers, as "misleading." Further weeding out of these

ALL the extensive documents of the Commission's varied procedures—investigations, stipulations, transcripts of testimony and briefs, complaints and cease and desist orders, court decisions—are filed in the docket room.



advertisements resulted in the Special Board's starting 840 cases.

● **CONCENTRATING** on cases which can be handled through correspondence by the "questionnaire" method, the Board writes the advertiser for samples of the product in question, a quantitative formula if the product is a compound, and a copy of all ads published during the year. Sample, formula, and claims are referred to technical agencies of the Government—the Food and Drug Administration, the National Bureau of Standards, the Public Health Service—for scientific opinion.

If representations are made by the advertiser which do not seem justified, he is asked to submit further evidence or explain his advertising claims. He may reply by letter, or confer with the Board. Last year 280 such conferences were recorded. If the Board decides that the advertising claims are false or misleading, it recommends to the Federal Trade Commission that a stipulation be negotiated, whereby the advertiser agrees to refrain from certain advertising claims in the future.

If an advertiser refuses to respond to the questionnaire, the Special Board refers the case to the Commission for handling through the regular channels of investigation and complaint. Likewise if the advertiser, after correspondence or conference with the Board, is asked to sign a stipulation and refuses, the case goes to the Commission. Last year the Commission negotiated 417 stipulations. In 12 cases complaints were issued.

● **NO PENALTY** attaches to failure to abide by a stipulation. When stipulations fail to produce the desired results, the routine of preparing and issuing a complaint then follows.

Advertising of a wide range of commodities is considered by the Special Board. Cosmetics, drugs and patent medicines, healing devices, fabrics and clothing, automobile supplies, gasoline, encyclopedias, and correspondence courses, magic tokens and lucky charms, horoscopes and psychology courses, are some of the commodities whose ads have paraded before it.

6 A typical day's announcement by the Federal Trade Commission lists the following stipulations:

"The * * * Distributors agree to cease advertising that * * * hair tonic and shampoo will kill scalp or hair troubles and do the 'heretofore impossible' by conditioning the hair or removing dandruff."

"The * * * Refining Company will discontinue advertising that * * * if used in the bath will result in skin charm or feminine loveliness * * *"

"* * * Laboratories stipulate that they will desist from advertising that their product, * * *, will rebuild nerves, rejuvenate the body, overcome mineral starvation and malnutrition, and halt premature old age."

"The * * * Reducing Belt Company will cease representing that use of the * * * reducing belt will melt away the waistline and give its wearer freedom from gas, indigestion, headaches, and shortness of breath."

● **NEW PROCEDURES** are specified in the Wheeler-Lea Act to protect the public from false advertising of food, drugs, devices, and cosmetics. Not only is false advertising of any of these 4 commodities defined as an "unfair or deceptive act or practice in com-

A **BAN** on false advertising of cosmetics, food and drugs, healing devices, is part of the new FTC law. But the law's protection is a limited one. Consumers must still read their labels, know their own health problems inside and out.



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merce," against which the Commission may proceed with a cease and desist order, but injunction proceedings and criminal prosecution are established to help deal with the problem.

Under its new powers the FTC can go to a Federal district court and ask for a temporary injunction against the publication of a false advertisement pending an investigation which may result in a cease and desist order. The injunction will be denied, however, if the publisher can show that it would hold up an issue of the paper or magazine beyond its usual date of publication.

Criminal proceedings are possible where a commodity "injurious to health" is being falsely advertised; or where the false advertising is with "intent to defraud or mislead." For such offenses, a penalty of up to \$5,000 or 6 months' imprisonment or both is provided for first violations; and double that is possible for second violations. This provision is aimed only at the advertiser; and no publication or broadcasting station or advertising agency which is willing to disclose the name of the offending advertiser is liable to criminal prosecution.

● **JUST WHAT** constitutes "false advertising?" Definitions are many and varied. The Wheeler-Lea Act sets up a definition:

"(a) The term 'false advertisement' means an advertisement, other than labeling, which is misleading in a material respect; and in determining whether any advertisement is misleading there shall be taken into account (among other things) not only representations made or suggested by statement, word, design, device, sound, or any combination thereof, but also the extent to which the advertisement fails to reveal facts material in the light of such representations or material with respect to consequences which may result from the use of the commodity to which the advertisement relates under the conditions prescribed in said advertisement, or under such conditions as are customary or usual."

Most of the crucial words and phrases in this definition itself have been the subject of controversy. What

is "misleading" and what is a "material respect?" Apparently, however, Congress has sought to forbid the use of half-truths, the omission of material facts, as well as the deliberate falsehood.

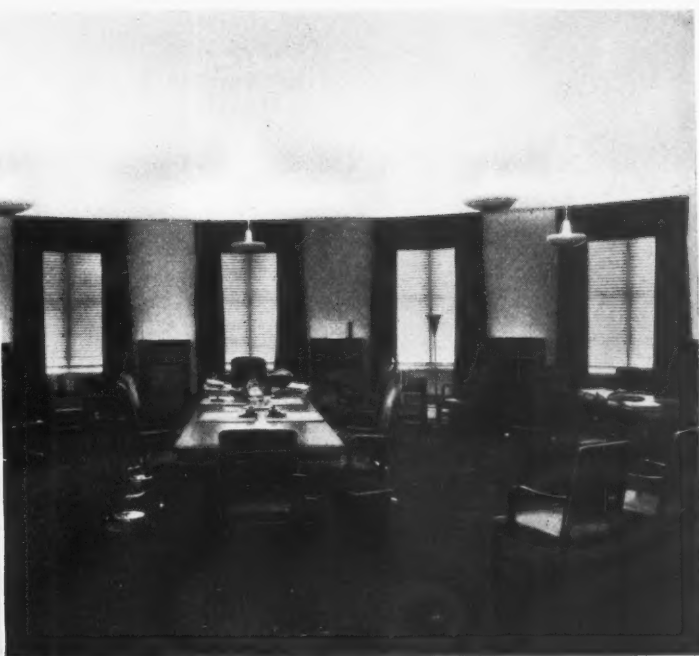
How much exuberant stretching of justifiable claims may advertisers indulge in? In U. S. Senate hearings a representative of the patent medicine industry pointed out that "rigid rules, without the consideration of the ordinary well understood salesman's puffery, would yield a serious blow to advertising." The law defines "false" as "misleading in a material respect." Is it misleading if a dealer says his shirts "wear like iron"—or is the statement so palpably incredible that no consumer is misled?

● **HOW MUCH** information should advertising give in order not to be "misleading?" The Act requires consideration of what is left unsaid, as well as what is stated. The Supreme Court long ago declared in upholding a State's requirement of disclosure of percentage of ingredients on food and drug labels: "It is too plain for argument that a manufacturer or vendor has no constitutional right to sell goods without giving to the purchaser fair information of what it is that is being sold."

The courts will have their say after the FTC has spoken on these questions. Original powers of the FTC under the 1914 Act have had their limits set by court decision.

Criminal proceedings under the Wheeler-Lea Act likewise will call for definitions of the terms "intent to defraud," and "injury to health." Lawyers agree that it is difficult to prove fraudulent intent. Proof of fraud in advertising requires establishing to the satisfaction of a jury that the advertiser *knew* that the claims he was making were false. Proof positive of someone's state of mind is not easy. It is the nature of fraud to cover up the evidences of bad faith.

● **ADVERTISING CLAIMS** are not easily checked by a jury innocent of scientific knowledge. Even a retailers' national trade association committee



BEHIND the doors of the Chief Examiner's Division, in Washington and in 5 field offices, 112 attorneys investigate complaints of unfair trade practices and prepare cases for final action by the Federal Trade Commission. A Special Board of Investigation reads magazines, newspapers, and radio scripts to pick up cases of false advertising.

has recently asked manufacturers to guarantee the truth of statements about their products, on the ground that it is impossible for most retailers to know whether a manufacturer's claims are true or false.

As far as the public is concerned, solicitude, if any there be, to see punishment visited upon fraudulent advertisers is only a by-product of the desire for self protection in a world of vast and conflicting claims.

The term "injurious to health" also awaits interpretation. Is a product "injurious to health" if harmless in itself but advertised for a disease for which medical science would indicate another treatment? Is it injurious to health if its effects are harmless in a single dose but dangerously habit forming in the long run?

Injury to health may not come from a medicine itself. But cases like those of the diabetes cure brewed from horsetail weed or the simple liniment sold as a tuberculosis cure, illustrate

how health is injured when credulous readers of false advertising use such nostrums while they allow a dangerous ailment to get worse.

A preparation safe for most users will upset the person who is allergic to one of its ingredients. Danger may lie in the use of a preparation which will remedy one condition but—for some users—will create another sore spot.

What conditions are "customary or usual?" Exceptional conditions for one user may be quite "customary or usual" for another. According to the House of Representatives conference committee, "It (penalization) is not intended to extend to cases where there might be injurious results *merely because of reactions of consumers due to their peculiar idiosyncrasies or allergic conditions.*"

● **CLEARLY** consumers will have to read labels as carefully as ever, to determine for themselves to what specific

set of "customary or usual" conditions advertising claims may refer. They may need to have some doctor diagnose their own "peculiar idiosyncrasies or allergic conditions" to know what deceptions they are not being protected from.

● A RECENT stipulation between the maker of an oil shampoo and hair coloring and the FTC indicates that the Commission may act to protect all likely users, not only some. Under this stipulation the company promises to "stop representing that either the oil shampoo or the hair coloring is safe or harmless, unless in direct connection with such assertion there appears in equally conspicuous type a warning that such products may be harmful to persons having scalp disease, cuts or abrasions, or who have had dermatitis caused by use of a hair coloring."

But the question of which condi-

[Concluded on page 18]



Pajamas Join the Standards Procession

Manufacturers and the National Bureau of Standards work toward a system of standard sizes and size-labeling of men's pajamas

THE MOMENT a man walks up to a pajama counter he becomes one of the first 4 letters of the alphabet. At least that's what a salesman in a Washington haberdashery told us. If it's a woman who's doing the shopping the clerk soon finds out by a few leading questions whether her husband or son is a Mr. A, B, C, or D.

It's been the tradition in the pajama industry to designate size by letters. A is for the little man, B and C for the fair to middling sized ones, and D for the great big fellow. But just how broad should the shoulders be, how long the sleeves and trouser legs be in each of these sizes if they are to fit the average Mr. A, B, C, or D? That decision depends on the manufacturer. He may cut his pajamas out of as many

yards of cloth and to any measurements he wishes. Today, however, most manufacturers cut their pajamas to conform to the minimum standard measurements of the commercial standard for sizes of men's pajamas. These manufacturers evidently feel that it benefits the makers, sellers, and buyers of pajamas if there are some standard dimensions behind these A, B, C, and D's.

Retailers and consumers will undoubtedly agree. For storekeepers it's a loss of time and money to have goods returned. For consumers it's a nuisance to have to bring clothing back because the size is wrong.

Eight years ago there were enough pajama manufacturers interested in standardizing their product for size to

CONSUMERS' best bet is to have pajamas measured for size before buying them. Manufacturers who cut their pajamas to conform to the minimum standard measurements of the commercial standard for sizes and those who use their own pet measurements, both label their pajamas with A, B, C, or D for size.

make possible the establishing of a commercial standard.

Promulgation of a Commercial Standard is the function of the Division of Trade Standards of the National Bureau of Standards. This government agency is a sounding board for the opinions of manufacturers, distributors, and consumers. When it receives a request for a commercial standard, it sets its machinery to work. If it's a request for standards for sizes for men's pajamas, its first job is to find out the pet measurements that each manufacturer in the industry is using. Dimensions used by all manufacturers are then analyzed to see how they agree or vary, and a tentative draft of standard measurements, based on those submitted, is drawn up. This draft is sent back to the manufacturers for perusal. After the manufacturers have had time to study the draft, the Bureau invites them as well as distributors and interested consumer organizations to a conference. The tentative list of measurements is there discussed, inch by inch. It may be re-

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vised. Finally, it is voted upon. The result of the conference is usually a recommended commercial standard which is then made available to any interested party.

● **NEXT JOB** for the Bureau is to ask manufacturers, distributors, and consumers of that particular garment to sign a formal acceptance indicating their willingness to comply with the standard. If manufacturers with an output equal to at least 65 percent of the total production of the industry agree in writing to accept the standard and there is no active opposition the Bureau promulgates it as a commercial standard. Its job then is practically completed. It does not attempt to enforce the standard in any way. Voluntary policing of the standard may be done by a trade association of that particular industry. The trade association may even persuade its members to sign up. Thus the National Pajama Guild has agreed to conform to the commercial standards for men's pajama sizes, and has set up the machinery for the policing of the industry.

Only if the industry wishes to revise the commercial standard does the Bureau step into the picture again. Thus, after 8 years a change is now being considered in the commercial standard for men's pajamas. If manufacturers agree, the bottoms of men's pajamas will have another inch added to the circumference and the sleeve of size B pajamas will be an inch longer.

● **THIS TECHNIQUE** in arriving at a commercial standard for the size of men's pajamas is the one followed in establishing commercial standards in sizes for the other ready-to-wear garments, too. Scientific research by manufacturers or a trade association may provide the foundation for the measurements decided upon as minimum for a certain article of clothing or the measurements may be only the result of the practical experience of manufacturers over a period of years. The Bureau of Standards does not make a scientific check of dimensions used by the manufacturers. It merely attempts to help the industry to agree on a standardization of ones already in use.

At the present the Bureau has pro-



mulgated voluntary commercial standards for men's pajamas, boys' blouses, knit underwear, and dress patterns. A standard for men's shirts, other than work shirts, is now being considered, and a tentative draft of a proposed commercial standard covering size measurements for women's dresses is now being circulated among manufacturers. The latter is still a long way from being accepted. Each manufacturer has his own pet measurements for Juniors, Misses, Little Women, Regulars, Short Stouts, and Stouts. Until they agree on what the minimum measurements for the total length, armhole circumference, waist, hips, sleeve length, etc., should be, women will continue to find that sometimes they take a size 12, other times 14, or 16.


● **OF COURSE**, the fact that there is a commercial standard for a certain garment does not mean that every garment sold conforms to the minimum standard measurements. Though there has been a commercial standard for pajama sizes for 8 years a man may still find that though he hasn't gained a pound or grown a quarter of an inch, a brand new pair of pajamas marked exactly the same size as his old ones, has sleeves and trouser legs that are too short, that it's too snug under the arms or too loose around the waist. All pajamas whether made to conform to the commercial standard or not can be labeled size A, B, C, or D. If a manufacturer wishes, he can cut his size B pajamas out of 2 square yards of cloth instead of the 4 that is customarily used. When buying bargains in pajamas one should be particularly careful to examine them for fit.

[Concluded on page 19]

THESE TWO LABELS tend to bewilder the consumer.

- (1) "Government Standard Underwear" is too general a statement. There is no Government standard for quality in underwear, but only a commercial standard for size.
- (2) This label tells the reader that the garment conforms to a certain commercial standard but neglects to say that the commercial standard is for size only.





17 ounces
evaporated
milk

= 1 quart
fresh whole
milk

5 ounces
American
Cheddar cheese

= 1 quart
fresh whole
milk

1 quart fluid
skim milk and
 $1\frac{1}{2}$ ounces butter

= 1 quart
fresh whole
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Compare the Cost of These Whole Milk Products

More Milk for Millions

Economic needs of farmers and physical needs of under-consumers challenge the milk industry to get the cost of milk under the budgetary wires of every American family. What can it do?

LIKE Alice, *Consumers' Guide* has completed a tour in a strange land. Stepping through a milk bottle, instead of a looking glass, it has interviewed the Mad Hatters, the Hares, the Duchesses, and the Cheshire Cats of Milkland, taken notes of its flora and fauna, studied its laws and customs, and then, its notebooks full, it returned to tell consumers all about what it had seen. In this 9th and last article in the series, Milk for Millions, the *Guide* now seeks to summarize the meaning of what it has seen.

Some countries just are, and it isn't necessary to inquire why they happen

to exist, but this is not true of the milk country. Milkland, with its 25 million cows, its 4 million dairymen, its processors, its distributors, its trucks and tractors, its pasteurizing equipment, its bottling machines, its pricing systems, its laws, its health officers, and its problems, exists to supply human beings with their most important food, milk.

No one denies the importance of milk in the American diet.

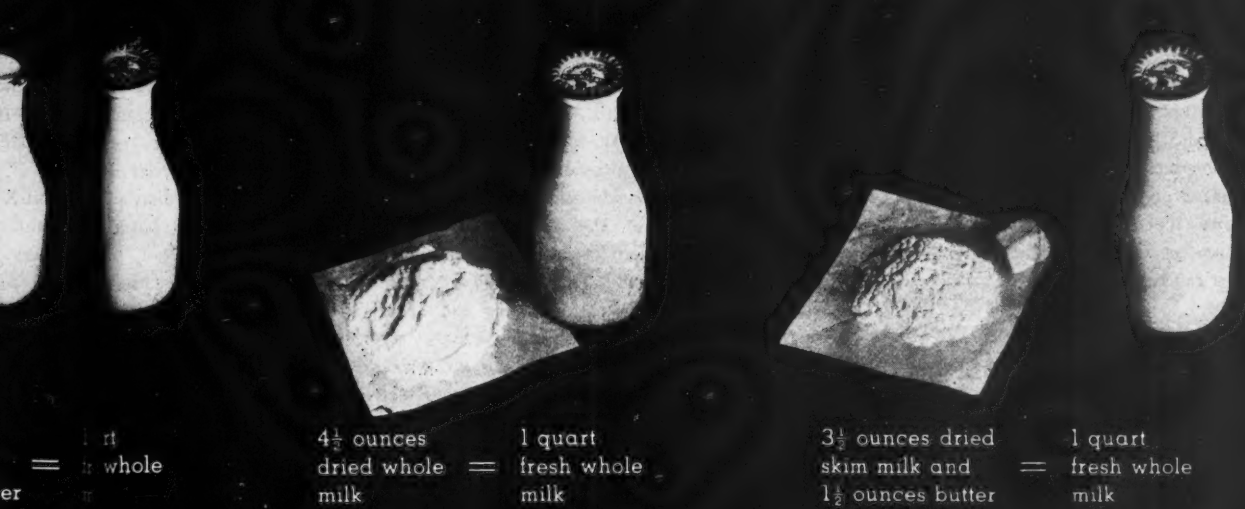
● **NUTRITIONISTS** have worked out the minimum amounts necessary for each person. Children, nursing and pregnant mothers, should have $\frac{3}{4}$ to a quart of milk or its equivalent every day. Other adults should have a pint of milk or its equivalent a day. Or

to generalize, the milk prescription for everyone is from 260 to 305 quarts of milk a year.

If America's under-consumers of milk were to get their full prescription, not only would their health be toned up but American farmers would have a bigger job to do. The Bureau of Home Economics has figured that if the average consumption of city families could be raised to the level of families whose diets cost less than \$165 per person per year (1936 price levels), but whose food supply was rated as first class, there would be need for 33 percent more milk.

We tossed in a suggestion at the beginning of this story of milk, and now at the end we come back to underline it! The milk problem will be solved

* Last of a series of milk articles. Earlier articles appear in these issues: Aug. 9, Aug. 23, Sept. 6, Oct. 18, Nov. 1, Nov. 15, 1937, Jan. 17 and Jan. 31, 1938.



1 quart whole milk = 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ ounces dried whole milk = 1 quart fresh whole milk
 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ ounces dried skim milk and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ ounces butter = 1 quart fresh whole milk

Whole Milk Equivalents in Your City

only when more milk is consumed.

Not only the health of consumers hangs on this need for more milk. Fair returns to the farmers who produce milk, to the processors and distributors who handle it, to the workers along the milk route, and to investors, hang on this single necessity.

The reverse of this fact is also true. The milk problem will always be with us so long as everybody scrambles for a larger share in a too small milk can. In such a scramble, somebody is bound to end up with only the dregs. Everybody can get more out of the national milk can only if that can is built bigger than it is now.

When the Bureau of Home Economics studied the expenditures of more than a million native white non-relief families for the year 1935, they found these facts: Among low and middle income families the more money a family could spend for food the more it spent for milk. City families spending around 8 cents a meal per person consumed 2.3 quarts of milk a week per person. As average expenditures per meal per person increased, milk consumption increased, too. Families spending 11 cents per meal per person

used 2.8 quarts of milk per person a week. Families with 14 cents to spend for each meal per person bought each week 3.5 quarts of milk per person; and 17 cents a meal per person families had 3.6 quarts of milk per person to go on through the week. Thus milk consumed by this last group of families was more than 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ times greater than families at the 8-cent level and the groups listed include only part of the whole population. If the consumption of those who spend less or more than this could be accurately known, an even greater range in consumption of milk undoubtedly would be found.

●RECORDS for small city families, village families, and farm families in these same expenditure divisions all showed that as they had more money to spend, they consumed more milk. Milk consumption by small city families almost doubled from 2.1 quarts to 3.9 quarts per person a week, as expenditures per meal per person increased from 8 cents to 17 cents. In the same food spending range, village families increased milk consumption from 2.8 quarts to 4.6 quarts of milk per person a week.

Still more evidence comes to light about the eagerness of American families to drink adequate quantities of milk provided they can afford it. From the same study, on farms where milk is both cheaper and more available families drink more of it than in cities. At each food expenditure level farm families drink almost twice as much milk as city families in the same expenditure class.

Housing, feeding, and clothing the one-third of America that is ill-housed, ill-fed, and ill-clothed is a general, national problem. Consumers should throw their weight on the side of the scales that will bring the distribution of goods and services in the United States into balance, but that is a job for everyone, a job that all America must work on.



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Getting the price of milk down under the budgetary wires of many under-consumers of milk, however, need not wait on the overhauling of America. Some segments of the milk problem can be singled out so that people can go to work on them now. Perhaps a perfect milk economy waits on a perfect world; but there are things that can be done.

● **MANY THOUGHTFUL PEOPLE** who have put the milk problem under their economic microscopes have held that moderate decreases in the price of milk would not contribute appreciably to increase the amount of milk consumed. The demand for milk, they have said, is inelastic. By that they mean the amount of milk consumed is not much affected by the ups or downs in prices as they have ordinarily occurred.

Evidence exists that there is considerable variation in the elasticity in the demand for milk among different groups of people.

Milwaukeeans have said positively that they would drink more milk if prices were appreciably lowered. A study conducted by that city in cooperation with several Federal agencies revealed, for example, that if the price of a quart of milk were reduced by 2 cents the families in the low income class would increase their use of milk by 14.5 percent; families in the intermediate income class would drink 11.1 percent more milk, and the families in the top income class would drink 6.2 percent more.

Still stronger evidence comes from a number of midwestern cities where milk consumption has been stepping up since dealers offered milk in gallon jugs. By purchasing milk in gallon jugs at grocery stores consumers willing to be their own pack horses, are enabled to buy milk at 7½ cents a quart, 2½ cents less than the regular delivered price per quart. A study of 137 families buying milk this way in one city has shown that 94 families increased their milk consumption as a result of this plan, that 39 continued to use the same amount of milk, and that only 4 families got less milk than they had bought before the plan went into effect. Of the families using more milk, the average increase was 47 percent at one store and 50 percent at another.

● **FACTS SUCH AS THESE** show it is a mistake to market milk as though the demand for milk were universally inelastic. They suggest that this practice comes from failing to recognize that not all consumers are alike. It doesn't mean much to talk about "consumer demand" as though every one were cut out of the same pattern. Families differ from each other by the weight of their purses, by their desire for milk, and by their demand for all the marketing frills that go with milk. To get a more accurate measure of "consumer demand," the different needs of under-consumers and non-consumers must be considered.

At the top level are families with incomes big enough to afford all the

milk they want and also the services milk companies offer. They can afford to pay for the delivery of milk to their door. They can afford the extra costs which companies must charge when customers call up and order a pint of cream delivered immediately. They can afford the luxury of charge accounts.

Middle level families are those that can afford to buy milk, but not the extra services. If families in this group could buy milk without paying for a delivery service or a credit system or an advertising campaign, they would be able to get more milk.

Below these families are the tragic "one-third of the nation." The wage-earners in these families are unemployed, or are earning salaries too scanty to provide even a minimum of decency in living. Many of them are on relief. As things are now they can afford to buy neither milk nor services.

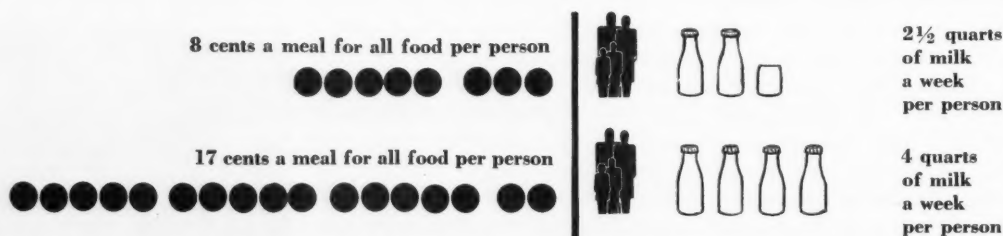
● **TO INCREASE** milk consumption by the first group, education is necessary. They must be told, if they don't know it already, that milk is an essential food, that it contributes vital ingredients to a healthy diet. Chances are they have already heard that milk is good food and believe it, unless by unhappy accident they have also heard milk described as a medicine or a beauty secret. Calling a good food more than a food is a kind of education that creates doubt as well as convictions.

Most Americans fall into groups 2 and 3. If their consumption of milk

MILK CONSUMPTION GROWS BIGGER AS SMALL INCOMES BECOME MEDIUM-SIZED INCOMES

Comparing consumption of milk by urban families

CONSUMERS' GUIDE



Approximate estimates from data collected by the U. S. Bureau of Home Economics, 1935-1936

MILK CONSUMPTION IS BIGGER WHERE MILK COSTS LESS

Comparing consumption of milk by families in cities and on farms

Quarts Milk per Week
per Person

8 cents a meal for all food per person



URBAN FAMILIES

2½



FARM FAMILIES

4

17 cents a meal for all food per person



URBAN FAMILIES

4



FARM FAMILIES

7

Approximate estimates from data collected by the U. S. Bureau of Home Economics, 1935-1936

is to be increased, the milk industry must gear itself to their needs.

Some Americans purchase their transportation in the form of chauffeur-driven limousines. Other Americans buy transportation at a nickel a ride. Others purchase it in the form of shoe leather. Now there isn't any reason why people who can afford limousines should not go coasting about in them, but there is a very good reason why they should pay for the cost of the limousines themselves and not make the strap-hangers foot the bill. In the milk trade in many cities this, however, is exactly what occurs. Milk in some cities costs as much when the housewife pays cash and carries it home as when she finds it waiting at her door and pays for it two weeks or a month later. The people who can afford an upholstered milk service along with a milk pageant share the cost of these added luxuries with people who don't want and can't afford pageants and upholstery at all, but who do want milk.

New York City authorities have recognized the needs of these consumers. We told about their milk stations and

the families served by them in the *Consumers' Guide* for January 10, 1938.

●SOME MILK DEALERS themselves, have taken steps to increase milk consumption by trimming off some of the frills, and by passing on the economies of cheaper distribution. One Iowa milk distributor decided that it cost less to put 3 quarts of milk on a consumer's doorstep at one time than to put 1 quart of milk there on 3 separate mornings, so he devised a plan whereby consumers could save the additional delivery cost. His customers pay 11 cents for single quarts of milk under this plan, 10 cents a quart for 2 quart deliveries, and 9 cents a quart for 3 quart deliveries.

To sharpen up the fact that economies can be had in delivery costs, another plan has been proposed; to sell milk at a fixed price plus service charges which decrease with the quantity of milk purchased. Thus milk at a grocery store would cost the flat milk price. Milk in 1 quart quantities delivered to the home would cost the flat milk price plus a service charge, which

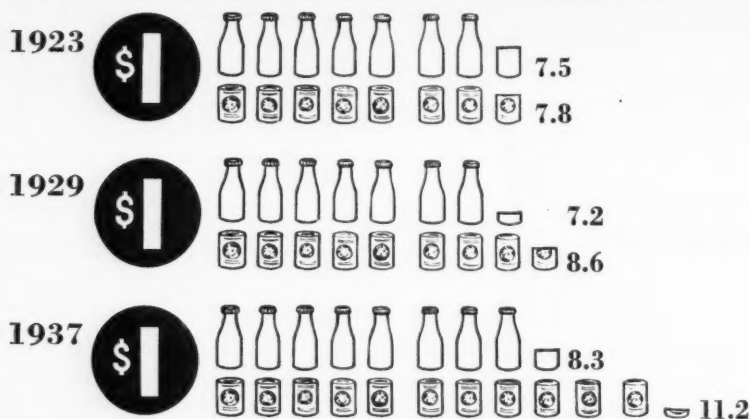
would shrink with each additional quart of milk purchased at the same time.

For our 3rd group of consumers such economies are not sufficient. In an economy that depends upon the desire for profits to maintain the production and distribution of goods and services, people who cannot afford to buy anything are economic untouchables. And so long as they are, no private company can be blamed for not getting goods, and in this case, milk, to them. The responsibility for supplying milk to the group of families who can't afford to buy anything obviously becomes a public one.

●WHEN WELFARE AGENCIES made a checkup of relief families in one large eastern city, they found 8,900 out of 18,000 families had been buying no fluid milk whatsoever; 7,200 had been buying 10,200 quarts a day from the stores, and 1,900 were having 2,800 quarts daily delivered to their homes. After a relief program supplying fluid milk to these families had got under way, they continued to purchase the same quantities through the same

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14 HOW MUCH MILK ONE DOLLAR BOUGHT



Each bottle represents 1 quart of fresh whole milk bought at a store

Each can represents the same amount of food values in the form of evaporated milk

Note: These are imaginary 17-oz. cans, larger than the 14½-oz. size sold in stores.

channels, and, in addition, they were consuming 26,400 quarts of relief milk. Their total consumption increased threefold, from 13,000 to 39,000 quarts a day.

● **SHORTCUTTING** past the blockades which bar such families from the milk they need, the Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation has set up an apparatus to carry the emergency load that our economy should, but does not, carry normally. Through it, farm surpluses are routed into the homes of the unemployed. Milk has been one of the farm products that has taken this emergency highway to town. Altogether 133 million pounds of cheese, dry skim milk, and evaporated milk have been distributed to families that can't afford to buy anything.

Some cities, too, are aware that families unable to buy are public responsibilities. In New York, for example, milk for those who can't buy is partially assured through a \$40,000 a month expenditure by the city government. Private social agencies, dispersing these funds get milk to 8,500 families on relief. Milk is furnished free under this plan for school children's lunches, for expectant mothers, for undernourished children, and for pre-school children.

Ideally, some economists say, an industry should seek profits by selling

more goods at lower prices. The way to do this is to become more efficient so as to make possible lower prices. Lower prices enable more people to buy more of the goods the industry manufactures.

If a particular manufacturer does not continually maintain his comparative efficiency in relation to the other manufacturers of the same product he will eventually lose out altogether. If an entire industry becomes muscle-bound in this respect, it may lose out to some alternative product, even if it is supplying an apparently indispensable commodity.

● **SUCH SUBSTITUTION** may turn a healthy profitable industry into a sick industry. This, of course, is one of the hazards of business. Loss of markets and the slow drying up of profits are the penalty of inefficiency. The threat of this is one of the spurs to increasing efficiency.

Some observers of 2 competitive branches of the milk industry point to contrasting routes which prices and consumption of fluid and evaporated milk have taken over the past 15 years.

In 1923 the consumption of fluid milk and cream in all of non-farm America amounted to 3,123 million gallons. By 1929 this rose to 3,739 million gallons. But by 1936, even though both the human and cow popu-

lation had increased, milk and cream consumption had declined to 3,703 million gallons.

Against this record of decreasing consumption stands the record of the evaporated milk industry. In 1923 the consumption of evaporated milk in the United States totaled 236 million gallons in fluid milk equivalent. By 1929 this had increased to 323 million gallons, and by 1936 it had risen to 432 million gallons.

True, evaporated milk is only a drop in the milk bucket. Even today only a small amount of the milk consumed is consumed as evaporated milk. But another set of statistics seems to show that although evaporated milk today is only a cloud as big as a man's hand on the milk sky, it may nevertheless be a signal of something larger to come.

● **CONSUMPTION** of evaporated milk amounted in 1923 to 7.6 percent of the consumption of fluid milk. During the next 6 years both evaporated milk and fluid milk and cream consumption increased, but evaporated milk consumption increased at a faster rate. The result was that in 1929 evaporated milk consumption had risen to 8.6 percent of the fluid milk consumption. Then from 1929 to 1936 while fluid milk consumption declined, evaporated milk consumption rose to 11.7 percent of fluid milk consumption.

Economic rivalries between products find their expression in prices. And in the competition between evaporated milk and fluid milk, the price tendencies in these two branches of the milk industry may spotlight some of the reasons why the fluid milk industry is losing ground and why the evaporated milk industry has put on added speed year by year. Comparing the cost of 17 ounces of evaporated milk with its equivalent in food value, a quart of fluid milk, it can be seen that evaporated milk is a bargain in food values as compared with fluid milk, and a bargain that is becoming more of a bargain. In 1923, 17 ounces of evaporated milk cost consumers an average of 12.8 cents as compared with

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Safety First in Home Dry Cleaning

If you must do that freshening-up job at home, learn the rules to follow to avoid danger to you and to your clothes

IS IT SAFE to do dry cleaning at home? Many people have asked the *Consumers' Guide* this question. The shortest answer is "No." The attempt to save a few dollars may mean a serious accident or loss of life. Each year many explosions resulting in injuries and deaths are caused by the use of inflammable cleaning fluids in the home.

In spite of this sage advice many people do attempt this cleaning job at home because it is economical or because they live in a rural community and a trip to the dry cleaner's means a long or impossible trek to town.

Tips on technique which we give here are not intended for the careless or negligent. Nor are they designed to encourage home dry cleaning. They are a warning guide to consumers who have no alternative and yet are mature enough to understand the precautions they must take if the job is to be done at home safely.

Cleaning solvents are used in dry cleaning in much the same way as water is used for washing clothes. There are many different solvents which will remove dirt and grease from textiles: gasoline, naphtha, carbon tetrachloride, and a cleaners' naphtha, called Stoddard solvent, which conforms to commercial standard CS3-38 promulgated by the National Bureau of Standards. Only a cleaning solvent which conforms to Stoddard's specifications should be used by the amateur.

Gasoline and naphtha are very explosive and highly inflammable. They must never be used. The money saved in doing one's own dry cleaning is not worth the hazard of fire that comes

with using either one. Carbon tetrachloride is not inflammable, but it is too expensive to use in the generous quantities needed to do an effective cleaning job. If used in a considerable quantity it should be used out of doors as it is toxic.

● **STODDARD SOLVENT** has a base similar to kerosene and is free from impurities which may leave a dry-cleaned garment with a greasy feel or an odor. It will ignite but is not explosive. This type of solvent is named after W. J. Stoddard who for many years carried out intensive studies and tests of various petroleum distillates in order to find a dry-cleaning product that would mean less danger of property and fire hazard for the industry. A commercial standard for Stoddard solvent was promulgated by the National Bureau of Standards in 1928. Since that time it has been the standby of the many professional dry cleaners.

Many oil companies process cleaning fluids that conform to the commercial standard of Stoddard solvent. Consumers can purchase these at wholesale distributing plants, and sometimes at local gas stations and paint stores. Cleaning fluids are sold under many trade names. The fact that the product measures up to the commercial standard may not always be given on the label. In that case the consumer should request this information from the storekeeper.

Benzene soap is not essential but it is helpful in cleaning very soiled or light colored clothing. Drug stores sometimes sell a dry-cleaning soap containing benzene. These soaps are marketed under different brand names.

Technique of dry cleaning is comparatively simple. But before work is even begun, the day and place must be carefully chosen. Utah experts, who have studied and reported on methods of home dry cleaning, advise doing the job on a clear, sunny day with a good breeze stirring. They say there is more danger from static sparks when the humidity is low. Vapors given off during the cleaning operation might form explosive mixtures with the air.

Dry cleaning should always be done out-of-doors in a shaded spot clear of buildings and away from fire. The equipment needed includes a bench or table, 3 good sized vessels for the solvent, a colander, a line, and hangers for the clothes.

● **BENZENE SOAP** plus 1 or 2 gallons of solvent goes into the first vessel; only solvent goes into the other two containers. The vessels should be large enough so that the clothes need not be tightly packed. If possible they should be made of either granite or enamel. Light-colored clothing rubbing against tin or aluminum is apt to stain.

Clothing should be sorted into piles of light and dark materials. The light



16 clothing should be cleaned first. Careful cleaners brush each garment, examining it for spots, and then turn it inside out. Stoddard solvent removes grease spots and general dust and soil but it does not take out stains caused by blood, starch, ink, perspiration, and other substances. Many of these stains should be removed before the entire garment is cleaned. For techniques in removing specified spots see "On The Spot," *Consumers' Guide*, May 9, 1938.

Stains from sugar, starch, and perspiration on silk which water spots easily can sometimes be effectively removed by sponging the spot with water, after the material has gone through the first and second cleaning solution and is still moist from the solvent. The advantage of doing it at this time is that water and solvent do not mix and so there is less danger of a ring forming. After the spot disappears the surface should be patted with a dry cloth to remove the excess water before putting the garment into the last rinse. Spots on wool which are not removed by the solvent should be sponged with water after the garment is dry.

Three solvent baths give the best results. Each garment is allowed to soak in the first solvent-soap solution for about 10 minutes. The solvent is then worked through the garment, either with the hands or with a plunger or a small funnel. Garments that are very soiled are brushed gently, never rubbed between the hands. When clothing is removed from this vessel, as much of the solvent as possible is squeezed out, and the garment is then held over the pan to drip or placed in a colander over the pan. This process is repeated through the 3 baths.

These by-hand directions are tedious in this day of washing machines and speedy wringers. But solvent must never be used in washing machines as friction is often responsible for starting a fire. And wringers are out because the solvent destroys rubber. It also kills grass, so the careful thing to do is to place a pan to catch the drip from a garment hung out to dry. Drying should be done out-of-doors, in



(1) BEFORE SOAKING CLOTHES in the cleaning fluid examine them for spots. Stains other than from grease and general soil may need special treatment. (2) Two soakings in Stoddard solvent and then a rinse in clear solvent will remove the usual grease spots and general soil stains from garments.



the shade, and should be thorough. Dry-cleaned garments, even after they are dried and pressed, will still carry the odor of the solvent unless hung in a warm airy place.

Solvent that has been used can be clarified and saved for the next time. The way this is done is to dissolve 2 heaping tablespoons of sal soda in a pint of water and stir it vigorously into the solvent. The solution is then allowed to stand in a covered vessel

until it is clear, or until the water and dirt go to the bottom of the pan. The clear solvent is then poured into a clean pan, put into an airtight container clearly labeled to show its contents, and stored in a cool dry place outside of the house and away from fire. This clarified solvent may be used in the first and second vessel. Only clean fresh solvent should be used for the final rinse.

[Concluded on page 18]



IS MOTHER GOOSE going cooperative? Grade school children at Greenbelt, Maryland, have been supplying themselves with candy and gum, cookies, tops, and pencils, in their own cooperative store. One hundred and thirty-two of the school's 223 pupils are shareholders in the "Gum Drop Co-op." Shares cost 5 cents apiece.

Six weeks of operation gave the young cooperators a reserve of enormous proportions—namely, \$12. After voting themselves a 20 percent patronage dividend and a gift to the school of 10 percent of the savings and crediting non-members' patronage refunds to the purchase of shares, the "Gum Drop Co-op" still had a surplus on hand.

Greenbelt High School lads and lassies are following the example of their kid brothers and sisters. Fifty-three of the 83 high school students have formed their own cooperative. They have already reported savings of \$28.02 on purchases of \$93.80. No dividend hunters, these cooperators plan to use savings for the acquisition of gym equipment for their school.

STUDENT COOPERATION on college campuses also reports progress, on a more earnest level. Cooperators from 5 colleges in 4 far western States, took off a couple of days during Spring vacation, met at Idaho University, added up the strength of the organizations which had sent them, and discovered they had a membership of 2,000 between them, and were doing a business of \$210,000, and saving their membership, it is claimed, over \$150,000 a year. They thereupon organized a Students' Cooperative League for the Pacific Coast.

Co-ops and near-co-ops and pseudo-co-ops have been cropping up and disappearing among university students for many years. The groups represented at the Idaho conference seem

to have been built on the Rochdale plan. Most were founded during the depression in response to a real need of members to cut the cost of living—especially housing and eating costs—if they were to continue in college.

Idaho University's co-ops, organized in 1932, now run 7 campus dormitories. The University of Washington reports 10 cooperative rooming houses, with a central kitchen. Washington State College and the University of Oregon have 4 housing co-ops each. At the University of California, one of the 3 co-ops has taken over the biggest apartment in Berkeley to run as a cooperative dormitory.

ANOTHER MILESTONE in international cooperative trade was the shipment of 200,000 bushels of wheat from the Union Equity Cooperative Exchange, of Enid, Oklahoma, to England's Cooperative Wholesale Society. In England, the wheat was ground into flour at a cooperative mill, baked in a co-op bakery, and delivered to English families over retail consumer cooperative counters.

One out of every 4 loaves of bread that English families consume, comes from cooperative bakeries. Britain's Cooperative Wholesale Society is largest wheat buyer in the British Isles.

SIX FOREIGN COUNTRIES are now using lubricating oil blended in the cooperative compounding plant of the Consumers' Cooperative Association at North Kansas City, Missouri. Latest national cooperative wholesale to order co-op oil is that of Bulgaria. A 4,760 gallon shipment is on its way to Sofia.

Cooperative wholesales in France, Belgium, Scotland, Estonia, and Canada, have already made purchases. These wholesales are using their patronage dividends to purchase shares of stock in the CCA. A share will

entitle the foreign cooperative wholesale to a voice in the organization on the same terms as the 400 retail consumer cooperatives affiliated with CCA.

WHAT DOES a cooperative wholesale do in a depression? The 324 delegates representing 77 societies at the recent annual meeting of the Central Cooperative Wholesale at Superior, Wisconsin, voted to increase their reserves; to hold back on cash patronage refunds and pay them out on a revolving basis; and to boost their educational budget.

Out of last year's earnings of \$76,000 (on record sales of \$3,356,000) delegates voted to put \$18,000 into reserves. Of the remainder, \$25,000 will be paid out to member retail societies in the fall of 1938; the final \$33,000 in the fall of 1940. Societies which have less than the required amount of shares (\$10 for each member, or \$20,000 total) will receive their refunds in the form of shares. Those entitled to receive cash refunds will be urged to take certificates of indebtedness maturing in 5 years, bearing 4 percent interest.

Having thus reinforced its financial standing, the wholesale upped its educational department's allowance for the year from \$7,800 to \$12,000. The educational department was instructed to spread information about cooperative medicine.

The Board of Directors was asked to investigate "the feasibility of applying a labelling system for canned goods that is approved by the Federal Government."

CELEBRATION of its 27th birthday brought to light the fact that the Cooperative Trading Company of Waukegan, Illinois, has become the largest retail business in Waukegan. An enterprise serving 2,670 members, the co-op points to a variety of enterprises, in addition to the original dairy—a bakery, 7 stores and markets, a service station, and ice cream, farm supplies, and electrical appliances departments.

Last year the Society paid out \$110,000 in salaries to its 100 employees. Sales were over \$800,000; and net earnings just under \$25,000. Share capital in 1937 came to \$88,000.

18 ANOTHER MILESTONE OF CONSUMER PROTECTION

[Concluded from page 7]

tions of use are "customary or usual" will probably require definition for each type of commodity.

Juries and courts, in interpreting the criminal provisions of the Wheeler-Lea Act, will face nice questions of advertisers' states of mind and technical problems of medicine and pathology.

Regulation of advertising practices by Federal agencies in the public interest is not entirely new. The Securities and Exchange Commission has the mandate to see that purchasers of stocks and bonds receive all the information necessary for intelligently passing on the merits of an investment. The Securities Act of 1933 uses two methods to insure a square deal to investors. One is a general prohibition on fraud, including half truths and omissions as well as deliberate misstatements. A second and more important requirement calls for registration of specified types of information with the SEC, and inclusion of this information in the prospectus which must be sent to anyone who is proposing to purchase the securities involved.

Legalization of the sale of alcoholic beverages has carried with it regulation of the advertising of beers, wines, and liquors, under the Federal Alcohol Administration Act of 1935. Advertising regulations promulgated by the FAA not only ban false and misleading statements, but require affirmative declaration of the contents of the bottle—information as to identity, alcoholic content, presence or absence of neutral spirits.

Some general regulation of advertising by the States is attempted. Thirty-eight commonwealths have laws on their books which at least frown upon false advertising.

● **THE WHEELER-LEA ACT** marks a new departure in methods and scope of protection for honest business and the public. How much of a departure will be seen in the attitude of industry, the unfolding of enforcement procedures and the interpretation of critical

terms by the courts. Consumers, hoping for actual "milestones of consumer protection," will be concerned to see whether this milestone marks progress in realistic benefits and protection to them or only changes the words in which cases are argued in the courts.

MORE MILK FOR MILLIONS

[Concluded from page 14]

the 13.9 cent-cost of its fluid milk equivalent. By 1929, 17 ounces of evaporated milk had dropped in price to 11.5 cents, while fluid milk had risen to 14.4 cents a quart. By 1936 evaporated milk had dropped to 8.9 cents while fluid milk slipped down only to 12.5 cents.

● **THE ADVANTAGE IN PENNIES** that evaporated milk consumers got over fluid milk consumers increased from 1.1 cents in 1923, to 2.9 cents in 1929, to 3.6 cents in 1937.

Part of this milk saving has been possible because milk processors pay farmers slightly more for the milk used in bottling than for milk sold in evaporated form. Fluid milk prices quoted above also include the cost of delivery to consumers' homes, while evaporated milk prices are store prices.

Making rough allowance for both of these extra costs, the evaporated milk industry has offered increasing economies as compared with the fluid milk industry, due to its success in shortening the dollar distance between cows and consumers. The comparative savings increased from one-tenth of a cent in 1923 to 1.5 cents in 1937. The play for fluid milk now would seem to be to find its own ways of cutting dollar distances.

Evaporated milk consumers for their part are demonstrating something that all consumers might well learn. To obtain the nutritive qualities that milk affords, it is not necessary to drink fluid milk alone. The same food values may be obtained by using other milk products, and occasionally by shifting back and forth it is possible to pick up bargains in milk.

Five ounces of cheese will serve the nutritional purposes of a quart of milk. Seventeen ounces of evaporated milk

is interchangeable on the diet with a quart of milk.

A quart of fluid milk also finds its dietary equivalent in 3½ ounces of skimmed milk and 1½ ounces of butter.

The important dietetic fact for consumers to remember is that adults should get a pint of milk or its equivalent a day, and that children should get a quart of milk or its equivalent a day.

Thus ends our story of milk for now. Soon it will become outdated so many are the new facts and fancies turned up by those who are studying this industry.

● **THE FUTURE** of fluid milk and of milk in other forms is anyone's guess of course. But one thing is clear: This industry has a future. A food of this importance is not going to lose out simply because its farmer-distributor-consumer problems are difficult ones.

This, too, is becoming clear: Milk's future is going to be interesting and full of changes. The industry is looking itself over. No one who lives by it, or even close to it, believes that its problems have all been worked out. Disputes are vigorous, sometimes violent, but on one point there seems to be wide agreement—we need to find new answers to many old milk problems. On all sides there is evidence that the search for answers is gathering momentum.

SAFETY FIRST IN HOME DRY CLEANING

[Concluded from page 16]

Many skins are irritated by dry-cleaning solvent. To be on the safe side it is best to wear rubber gloves or to rub the hands with glycerine before touching the solvent. Rubber gloves will swell during the cleaning process, but they will regain their shape again and may be used another time.

Our final tip, like our first: Before starting this risky and laborious process, try to figure professional dry-cleaning costs into your clothes budget. Where that cannot be done, take care, take time, and take thought in using any home substitute.

PAJAMAS JOIN THE STANDARDS PROCESSION

[Concluded from page 9]

Standard dimensions for pajamas at present are:

Pajama Coat	Measurements, size			
	A	B	C	D
Length...	Ins. 30	Ins. 30½	Ins. 30½	Ins. 31
Chest...	43	47	50	54
Armhole...	20	21½	22	22½
Sleeve Length...	32	32	33½	34
Sleeve Bottom...	12	12½	13	13½
Bottom of Coat...	43	47	50	54

Pajama Trousers	Measurements, size			
	A	B	C	D
Waist...	Ins. 39	Ins. 42	Ins. 45	Ins. 49
Seat...	50	52½	56	61
Thigh...	27	28	29	32
Rise, Front...	14½	15	16	17
Rise, Back...	15½	16	18	18½
Outseam...	42	43	44	45
Inseam...	28½	29	30	30
Knee...	20	21	23	24
Bottoms...	17	17½	18½	20

It would undoubtedly be much simpler for the consumer in buying pajamas if the label indicated that they were made to conform to the commercial standard as well as stating that they were size A, B, C, or D. When promulgating a Standard the Bureau usually recommends that if a garment conforms to the standard that it carry the fact on the label.

Thus in the present recommended commercial standard for men's shirts (exclusive of work shirts) the Bureau suggests that garments made according to the standard be identified with a tag, card, or label, saying this:

"Full size—The manufacturer certifies that the measurements of this shirt conform to the Commercial Standard CS . . . , issued by the National Bureau of Standards of the U. S. Department of Commerce."

This is a practice recommended by the Bureau. The Bureau has no power either to require such identification or to check on whether garments and labels are in agreement.

In fact, there is no authority—outside of the general authority reposing in Congress for the regulation of interstate commerce—which can require a manufacturer to label his prod-

uct or guarantee that it conforms to a standard. Labeling to certify compliance with a given commercial standard is entirely voluntary.

When such a label is once attached to a product or incorporated in its invoice or contract, however, it is binding upon the seller and enforceable through such agencies as the courts and the Federal Trade Commission. Enforcement of the statement on the label is generally regarded as the function of the trade association interested in stopping unfair methods of competition, but consumers and their organizations may also take a direct part by instigating complaints or other actions against companies whose label declarations are misleading or tend to misrepresent the product. Better business bureaus and distributor organizations are frequently helpful in bringing about compliance.

● FROWNS are sure to follow but may not overtake a manufacturer who attempts to make his product appear to be in any way approved by the Government. The Federal Government approves no clothing on the market, not even garments that are labeled as conforming to a Government standard.

Black looks come, too, when a garment which conforms to a standard for size only is labeled in such a way

that consumers who do not read labels carefully are led to believe that the garment conforms to other quality standards.

● HERE IN WASHINGTON we picked up a label featuring in large type: "GOVERNMENT STANDARD UNDERWEAR." An impressive statement, that, but a misleading one, too. There is no such thing as "Government standard underwear." Another label reads this way: "INFANT'S UNDERWEAR—CONFORMS TO U. S. C. S. 33-32." Undoubtedly this was a correct statement of fact, but to an uninformed consumer the mysterious letters and numbers might easily imply that all the features and qualities of this child's garment measured up to some Government yardstick of quality. "C. S. 33-32" is the designation for a commercial standard for size, only. The cut of a garment is only one factor that makes for quality. By featuring the words, "Full size," in the label recommended above, the Bureau hopes to avoid such misleading and confusing labels as these we found in Washington.

Careful consumers pack away in their baggage of buying information this fact: When you see a garment labeled, "conforms to U. S. C. S. . . .," remember that the garment is of standard size only.

Our Point of View

The CONSUMERS' GUIDE believes that consumption is the end and purpose of production

To that end the CONSUMERS' GUIDE emphasizes the consumer's right to full and correct information on prices, quality of commodities, and on costs and efficiency of distribution. It aims to aid consumers in making wise and economical purchases by reporting changes in prices and costs of food and farm commodities. It relates these changes to developments in the agricultural and general programs of national recovery. It reports on cooperative efforts which are being made by individuals and groups of consumers to obtain the greatest possible value for their expenditures.

The producer of raw materials—the farmer—is dependent upon the consuming power of the people. Likewise, the consumer depends upon the sustained producing power of agriculture. The common interests of consumers and of agriculture far outweigh diversity of interests.

While the CONSUMERS' GUIDE makes public official data of the Departments of Agriculture, Labor, and Commerce, the point of view expressed in its pages does not necessarily reflect official policy but is a presentation of governmental and nongovernmental measures looking toward the advancement of consumers' interests.

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